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ABSTRACT

Instructional supervision terminology continues to grow at an accelerating rate. This glossary is designed to help beleaguered instructional leaders identify research-based terms that facilitate a common language between teacher and supervisor and thereby enhance communication. The 100 terms are but a beginning collection of the most current definitions associated with effective teaching and effective schools. The glossary, a hands-on guide for teachers and supervisors, helps clarify misused or confusing terms and provides additional bibliographic references for further indepth review. Samples of terms defined are "academic learning time," "active listening," "bird-walking," "coaching," "contingent reinforcement," "engaged time," and "management by walking around." An index is provided. (MLH)

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Occasional Paper 87-1

GLOSSARY: 100+1 TERMS TO KNOW AND APPLY IN SUPERVISING INSTRUCTION

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Abstract

Terminology regarding Instructional Supervision (with-it-ness, cueing, wait time) continues to grow at an accelerating rate; and many instructional leaders are finding it extremely difficult to keep up with their ever-growing lists of responsibilities and need yet another tool to support their pursuit towards excellence in student achievement. The thrust for this occasional paper is to identify research-based terms which facilitate a common language between teacher and supervisor. The collaborative approach to supervision of instruction is enhanced by improved communications.

These instructional supervision terms are but a beginning collection of the most current definitions (give or take a few) associated with effective teaching/instruction and effective schools. Therefore, this glossary becomes a hands-on guide and reference for effective teachers and supervisors. "The Glossary: 100+1" is a quick resource for definitions/explanations when terms become confusing or misused, and also provides additional bibliographic citations that are available for further indepth review if necessary.

GLOSSARY: 100+1 TERMS TO KNOW AND APPLY IN SUPERVISING INSTRUCTION

Academic Learning Time

Academic learning time is the accrued engaged time in a particular content area involving activities that are appropriate in difficulty level and otherwise suited to current achievement levels.

Academic learning time, time-on-task, and quality time are terms which are synonymous in practical useage. They all refer to the amount of time in which the student is actively engaged in learning, either from direct teacher input or from activities related to a specific objective at the appropriate level of difficulty and complexity.

1. Fisher, C.; Berliner, D; Filby, N.; Marliave, R.; Chance, L.; and Dishaw, M. "Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time, and Student Achievement: An Overview." In Time To Learn. Edited by C. Denham and A. Lieberman. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, 1980.

2. Fisher, C. W.; Filby, N. N.; Marliave, R. S.; Cahen, L. S.; Dishaw, M. M.; Moore, J. E.; and Berliner, D. C. Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time and Student Achievement. Final report of Phase III-B, Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. Technical Report V-1. San Francisco, CA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978.

3. Brophy, J., and Good, T. L. "Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement," Handbook of Research on Teaching, Third Edition. Edited by Merlin C. Wittrock. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986, pp. 360-361.

Academically Focused

Academically focused describes the teacher and learner behaviors aimed at the content of the curriculum for the purposes of transmitting mastery. The content and the purposes for which it is taught are the very heart of the teacher-learning process. A school climate that is directed toward student achievement is academically focused.

1. Fisher, C. W.; Berliner, D. C.; Filby, N.; Marliave, R.; Cahen, L. S.; Dishaw, M. M.; and Moore, J. E. Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School: A Summary of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. San Francisco Technical Report VII-1, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 165 322).

Note: Index is found on pages 51-53.

2. Brookover, W. B.; Beamer, L.; Efthim, H.; Hathaway, D.; Lezotte, L.; Miller, S.; Passalacqua, J.; and Tratzky, L. Creating Effective Schools. Holmes Beach, Florida, 1982, 23-54.

3. Stallings, J., and Kaskowitz. Follow Through Classroom Observation Evaluation, 1972-73. Study of Implementation. Menlo Park, CA: Stanford Research Institute, Stanford University, 1974.

Accepting Feelings

Accepting feelings is the ability to use the feeling tone of the student constructively, to react to feeling and clarify it (Flanders, 1965). To convey to students that their feelings are understood and accepted in a nonjudgmental manner (Kerman and Martin, 1980).

1. Flanders, N. (1964). Interaction models of critical teaching behaviors. An Analysis and Projection of Research in Teacher Education. Ohio State University, pp. 197-218.

2. Kerman, S., and Martin, M. (1980). Teacher expectations and student achievement. Bloomington, Indiana. Phi Delta Kappa.

Active Listening

Active listening is the process of totally listening to another person. This involves the verbal and non-verbal messages, the context and the feelings. Active listening includes respecting and valuing the other person. It involves accepting the other's feelings without judging them. It means concentrating on what the other person is saying as he/she is talking--not thinking about how you will respond. It means being aware of your own feelings and reactions during the communication. It involves reflecting back the total message emphatically so the speaker knows you understand.

1. Briggs, Dorothy Corkville. Your Child's Self-Esteem. New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1975.

2. Dinkmeyer, Don. The Parenting Manual--Septematic Training for Effective Parenting. Circle Pines, Minnesota: American Guidance Service, 1977.

3. Dreikurs, Rudolf. Children the Challenge. New York: Hawthorn Books, Inc., 1964.

Active Participation

Learning is an active, not passive, process. Involvement to some degree appears necessary in any learning endeavor. The learner must become actively engaged in the learning. Active participation is a learner's willingness to work on tasks in a persistent, concentrated way. Active participation includes those overt procedures which allow the teacher to see how many students are correct and confident. Relevant learner behavior would be that covert and overt behavior that best matches the learning the teacher is after.

1. Edwards, Allen, and Scannell, Dale. Educational Psychology, The Teaching Learning Process. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1968, pp. 403-408.

2. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984, p. 12.

3. Peterson, P. L., Marx, R. W., and Clark, C. M. "Teacher Planning, Teacher Behavior, and Students' Achievement." American Educational Research Journal, 15 (1978), pp. 417-432.

Adjustment

Adjustment is changing the teaching as the learning is monitored. It is modification of instruction based on the learners' possession of essential information and/or the learners' performance of necessary skills. Learners who demonstrate mastery of an objective can be given enrichment activities. Those who do not can be given a second or third opportunity to achieve the outcome and are retaught using different strategies and materials.

1. Abrams, Joan D. "Precise teaching is more effective teaching." Educational Leadership, (May 1980), p. 138.

2. "A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Instruction in Boulder Valley." Quality Teaching/Evaluation Network, Boulder, Colorado, 1983, p. 39.

3. Klahr, David. Cognition and Instruction. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishing, 1976, pp. 81-108.

Advance Organizer

Advance organizers are designed to increase the efficiency of information processing capacities to absorb and relate bodies of knowledge. The learner is given a brief overview of the information to be studied and some notion of its importance in the overall scheme of things. An advance organizer can be thought of as an organizing framework at a higher level of abstraction or generality than the material being worked with. It provides the ideational scaffolding that bridges the gap from the students' prior knowledge to the new information. Its purpose is to activate a learner's prior knowledge in a way that will help the learner organize and integrate the new information.

1. Ausubel, David. "The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful material." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51 (1960), pp. 267-272.

2. "A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Instruction in Boulder Valley." Quality Teaching/Evaluation Network, Boulder, Colorado, 1983, p. 109.

3. Orasanu, Judith. Reading Comprehension: From Research to Practice. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 1976, pp. 81-108.

Affirm and Correct Student's Performance

Upon answering the teacher's question for performing in some way, a student usually wants to know what the teacher thinks of his/her performance. Research shows that teachers are not only less likely to call on low achievers but also less apt to react to low student's responses. Sometimes they receive no feedback at all or are replied to in vague terms so that they are unsure if their response or performance was correct. An example might be, "Well, yes, uh huh, but can anyone else put it in different terms?" The student would be sure if the teacher responded with "yes, that's correct" or "no, that is not correct."

1. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking into Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1973.

2. Rosenshine, Barak. Teaching Behaviors and Student Achievement. London: National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, 1971.

3. Zigler, Edward, and Kanzer, Paul. "Effectiveness of two classes of verbal reinforcers on the performance of middle-class and

lower-class children." Journal of Personality, 30 (June 1962), pp. 157-163.

Analysis

Analysis emphasizes the breakdown of material into its constituent parts and identifying the relationships between the parts. Doing so, the learner is able to better understand the organization of the information, draw conclusions, and support them with evidence. Analysis can be considered an aid to fuller comprehension or as a prelude to and evaluation of the material. The critical attributes of analysis can be thought of as analyze or break apart; similarities and differences; and right/wrong conclusions.

1. Bloom, B. S.; Englehart, M. B.; Fffurst, E. J.; Hill, W. H.; and Krathwohl, D. R. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals. Handbook I: Cognitive Domain. New York: Longmans Green, 1956, pp. 144-161.

2. "A Comprehensive Plan to Improve Instruction in Boulder Valley." Quality Teaching/Evaluation Network, Boulder, Colorado, 1983, p. 135.

Application

Application is the third level of cognition in Bloom's taxonomy and involves the use of abstractions in particular and concrete situations. It is the beginning of creative thinking. The student is asked to select an abstraction that is appropriate to a situation and then to apply it correctly. Abstractions may be in the form of general ideas, rules of procedures, or generalized methods. They may also be technical principles, ideas, and theories which must be remembered and applied. The ability to apply what has been learned to a new situation is a very important goal in education since practice cannot be provided for all situations which a student will encounter throughout life.

1. Bloom, B.; Madaus, G.; and Hastings, J. (1981). Evaluation to Improve Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., p. 332.

2. Oliva, P. (1984). Supervision for Today's Schools, 2nd edition. New York: Longman, pp. 97-99.

3. Vander Zander, J., and Pace, A. (1984). Educational Psychology in Theory and Practice, 2nd edition. New York: Random House, p. 376.

Aptitude/Treatment/Interaction Research

Aptitude/treatment/interaction research explores the possibility of interactions between aptitudes reflecting individual differences and alternative instructional treatments. The focus is on assessing individual differences in students and developing treatments that maximize learning gains at the student's aptitudinal level. ATI involves the designing of treatments so that students of various aptitudes can achieve given educational goals. However, research would suggest that there is not one best treatment for all students, and the best treatment might differ for students of different aptitude levels. Given a common set of objectives, some students will be more successful with one type of instructional program, and other students will be more successful with another. Bracht, G. H. "Experimental factors related to aptitude-treatment interactions." Review of Educational Research, 40 (1970), pp. 627-645.

1. Cronbach, L. J., and Webb, N. "Between-class and within-class effects in a reported aptitude x treatment interaction: Reanalysis of a study by G. L. Anderson." Journal of Educational Psychology, 67 (1975), pp. 717-724.

2. Peterson, P. L. "Aptitude x treatment interaction effects of teacher structuring and student participation in college instruction." Journal of Educational Psychology, 71 (1979), pp. 521-533.

3. Peterson, P. L. (1982). Individual differences. In Harold E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, pp. 846-850.

Behavior Modification

Behavior modification is the application of operant conditioning principles to change and improve behaviors. Operant conditioning is a long-established area of research concerned primarily with how consequences or events that follow behaviors affect the behaviors in the future. Behavior modification can in fact refer to any method or means of influencing an individual so that his/her behavior is modified. A behavior that is positively reinforced or rewarded occurs again whereas those that are not reinforced extinguish or disappear. Ultimately reinforced responses associated with one stimuli generalize to similar stimuli. The strategy rests on the assumption that learning depends on the connections between what you do and what subsequently happens to you.

1. Helts, Phillip. Behavior Modification. New York: Harper Magazine Press, Harper & Row, 1962.

2. Pusbie, Robert, and Brown, Paul. Behavior Modification "What Research Says to the Teacher". National Education Association, National Education Association of the United States, 1985.

3. Newcomer, Phyllis L. Understanding and Teaching Emotionally Disturbed Children. Allyn and Bacon, 1980.

Bird-Walking

Bird-walking is teacher behaviors not related to the learning objective.

Bird-walking is a humorous term used originally by Madeline Hunter to refer to a period of time in which the momentum of the learning is not maintained or in which the teacher is distracted by events or objects not related to the learning objective.

1. Manatt, R., and Stow, S. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. School Improvement Model Projects, College of Education, Iowa State University Research Foundation, Inc., 1984.

2. Kounin, J. S. Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Bloom's Taxonomy

Bloom's taxonomy is a hierarchical framework within which the behavioral aspect of each educational objective within the cognitive domain of learning is classified into six major categories; each is assumed to include behavior more complex, abstract, or internalized than the previous category. From the lowest level to the highest level, these categories are:

1. Knowledge
2. Comprehension
3. Application
4. Analysis
5. Synthesis
6. Evaluation.

1. Bloom, B.; Madaus, G.; and Hastings, J. (1981). Evaluation to Improve Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., pp. 40-41.

2. Vander Zander, J., and Pace, A. (1984). Educational Psychology in Theory and Practice, 2nd edition. New York: Random House, pp. 375-378.

3. Wittrock, M. C. (1981). Model of generative learning. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd edition. American Educational Research Association. New York: Macmillan, pp. 375-376.

Checking for Understanding

Checking for understanding is a method of inquiry or monitoring which is used to check for students' possession of essential information and skills necessary to achieve any given instructional objective. By "probing," "dipsticking," or "checking for understanding," the teacher monitors student learning so that teaching can be adjusted to maximize student mastery of objectives. M. Semones states, "Questioning is a check for understanding; however, a check for understanding is not always questioning."

1. U.S. Department of Education. (1986). What Works: Research About Teaching and Learning. Washington, D.C., p. 22.

2. Russell, D., and Hunter, M. (1976). Planning for Effective Instruction. In Increasing Your Teaching Effectiveness. Learning Institute. California: Pitman Learning, Inc., pp. 66-67.

3. Semones, M. (1986). Observing and evaluating teachers. Lecture notes, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.

Classroom Management

Classroom management entails the provisions and procedures necessary to establish and maintain an environment in which learning can occur. The critical element of the teacher's role thus shifts from control to management--management of time, space, materials, auxiliary personnel, and students. Research suggests that 1) there is a relationship between school learning climate, time-on-task, and achievement, and that 2) gains in achievement come from improved discipline in the schools. Thus, effective classroom management is an essential ingredient in effective instruction.

1. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (1982). Helping Teachers Manage Classrooms, D. Duke (Ed.). Virginia.

2. Brookover, W., and others. (1982). Creating Effective Schools: An Inservice Program for Enhancing School Learning Climate and Achievement. Florida: Learning Publications, Inc., pp. 173-174.

3. Doyle, W. (1981). Classroom management and organization. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd edition. American Educational Research Association. New York: Macmillan, pp. 392-431.

Coaching

Coaching is the technique in which someone uses their skills to assist another's performance. In the effective teaching sense, coaching helps the person being coached analyze content and approach. Areas of strength and weakness are looked at objectively, and then, through continuous appraisal, these areas are refined. Coaching is thought necessary for transfer of new skill development. Similar concepts include: peer teaching, peer tutoring, peer coaching, peer analysis, peer supervision, peer facilitation, team learning, cooperative learning, cooperative team learning.

1. Hills, P. J. A Dictionary of Education. Routledge and Kegan Paul. London, 1982, p. 99.

2. Joyce, Bruce R. Improving America's Schools. White Plains, New York: Longman Inc., 1986, pp. 83, 86, 88-92.

3. Wells-Welsh, Sue. Peer Coaching and Other Follow-Up Strategies. Designing Instructional Excellence 1986 Conference, Kansas City, Missouri.

Comprehension

Comprehension is the second level of cognition in Bloom's taxonomy. It requires the understanding or apprehension of facts by students rather than mere recall. It includes the skills of translation, interpretation, and extrapolation and requires the student to paraphrase knowledge accurately or to summarize and make use of the materials or ideas being communicated without necessarily being able to relate it to other material or see its fullest implications. Bloom contends that the first two levels of cognition, knowledge and comprehension, constitute the foundation on which all complex thinking is built.

1. Bloom, B.; Madaus, G.; and Hastings, J. (1981). Evaluation to Improve Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., pp. 40-41.

2. Page, W., and Pinnell, G. (1979). Teaching Reading Comprehension--Theory and Practice. ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills. National Institute of Education, p. 4.

3. Wittrock, M. C. (1981). Reading comprehension: Neuropsychological and cognitive processes of reading. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd edition. American Educational Research Association. New York: Macmillan, pp. 375-376.

Concept

Concept is often associated with Brumer's strategies in concept formation or Piaget's concept development in children. It can also be found describing learning, models, styles, and skills. Concept is the term which refers to a category that has many members. It facilitates the organization and interpretation of data. Concepts are abstractions which refer to concrete objects, properties of objects, and ideas.

1. Dejnozka, Edward L. Educational Administration Glossary. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1983, pp. 34-35.

2. Ellington, Henry, and Harris, Duncan. Dictionary of Instructional Technology. New York: Nichols Publishing Co., p. 37.

3. Hills, P. J. A Dictionary of Education. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1982, pp. 104-105.

Context of Learning

Peter Oliva states in his book Supervision for Today's Schools, "School climate impinges on pupil behavior in much the same way as the climate in the classroom affects pupil conduct." Mr. Oliva also said, "Students expect teachers to foster a classroom environment where, whether productive learning goes on or not, at least their security and self-esteem are protected."

Based partially on Mr. Oliva, context of learning is the term used to describe the climate in which learning takes place. There are two variables affecting the context, or climate, of learning. They are: the socio-economic status of the group, prior level of achievement, the level

of attitudes toward school and learning and academic motivation expressed by the student or group; and, the climate or feeling level, positive or negative, expressed by the instructor.

1. Keeves, John P. "Motivation and school learning." International Journal of Educational Research, 10(2) (1986), pp. 117-127.

2. Oliva, Peter F. Supervision for Today's Schools. New York and London: Longman, Inc, 1984.

3. Roueche, John E., and Baker, George A. Profiling Excellence in America's Schools. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1986.

Contingent Reinforcement

Contingent reinforcement is the rearranging of environmental rewards and punishments to strengthen or weaken specific behaviors. The application of contingent reinforcement should be evaluated prior to selecting the appropriate behaviors to be reinforced. You may create a pleasant outcome by engaging in a valued behavioral activity.

1. Lovaas, O. I., and Bucher, B. D. (1974). Perspectives in Behavior Modification with Deviant Children. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

2. Tharp, R. G., and Wetzel, R. J. (1969). Behavior Modification in the Natural Environment. New York: Academic Press.

3. Vander Zander, James W., Pace, Ann J. Educational Psychology in Theory and Practice, 2nd edition. New York: Random House, 1984, pp. 484, 486-487.

Congruent

Congruent is the term used to describe things fitting together with no opposition, thus, denoting various relationships between these things. It is the one-to-one correlation between the teacher, the objective, and the student. If congruency exists in a lesson, there will be no discrepancies between the objectives and its actual performance. Teaching to the objective provides congruency.

1. Bates, Marilyn. Teaching to the Objective. Designing Instructional Excellence 1986 Conference, Kansas City, Missouri.

2. Hunter, Madeline. Interview. Designing Instructional Excellence 1986 Conference, Kansas City, Missouri.

3. Stachowski, Ernest A. Interview. Designing Instructional Excellence 1986 Conference, Kansas City, Missouri.

Cooperative Team Learning

Cooperative team learning describes situations whereby students, teachers, and administrators interact with common goal of mastering material. This material may be academic, instructional, or supervisional in nature depending on the nature of the group. Each member is expected to contribute to his/her own and group learning. Similar concepts include: peer teaching, peer tutoring, peer coaching, peer analysis, peer supervision, peer facilitation, team learning, cooperative learning.

1. Dejnozka, Edward L., and Kapel, David E. American Educators Encyclopedia. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1982, p. 388.

2. O'Donnell, A. M. "The effects of monitoring on cooperative learning." Journal of Experimental Education, 54 (Spring 1986), pp. 169-173.

3. Webb, L., and Lane, J. L. "Peer facilitation as practicum." Communication Education, 35 (April 1986), pp. 163-166.

Corrective

Corrective is often associated with a type of feedback or teaching. In which case it would be defined as any method primarily intended for the correction of knowledge or conduct. In other words, the misinterpretation of facts, form, or symbols would be corrected. Corrective is a procedure that removes error. This procedure may be self-administered, required by someone of greater authority, or supplied to a learner immediately after a response to an item. Mastery Learning often requires students to do correctives until a skill is learned. Daily formative evaluation utilized primarily for student corrective purposes rather than for grade classification.

1. Dzyacky, Karyn. Interview. Educational Administration 557. Ames, Iowa, 1986.

2. Ellington, Henry, and Harris, Duncan. Dictionary of Instructional Technology. New York: Nichols Publishing Co., p. 64.

3. Monroe, Paul. A Cyclopedia of Education New York: Macmillan Co., 1911, pp. 207, 209.

Correlates

The "correlates" describes empirically demonstrable relationships of educational practices with academic achievement measures. Performances are effective that correlate with measurable outcomes. This criteria of effectiveness is typical of the effective schools movement. It uses correlation as its test and is often referred to as process-product research. Ron Edmonds (1979) suggested five "correlates" of effective schools:

1. Instructional Leadership
2. Instructional Focus
3. School Climate
4. High Expectations
5. Measuring Results.

And some school districts have added a sixth: Parent Involvement.

1. Good, T., and Grouws, D. Process-product Relationships in Fourth Grade Mathematics Classrooms (Final Report). Grant NEG-00-3-0123, National Institute of Education, 1975.

2. Edmonds, R. R. "Some schools work and more can." Social Policy, 9 (1979), pp. 28-32.

3. Rosenshine, B. V. "Recent research on teaching behaviors and student achievement." Journal of Teacher Education, 27 (1976), pp. 61-65.

Courtesy

Courtesy is the civility or politeness in the classroom which is expressed by the teacher to all students (Silberman, 1970). Some teachers fail to model behavior reflecting courtesy toward low status students (Good and Brophy, 1973).

1. Silberman, C. (1970). Crisis in the Classroom: The Remaking of American Education. New York: Random House.

2. Good, T., and Brophy, J. (1973). Looking in Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row.

Covert Behavior

Covert behavior includes internal processes of thinking and emotional reactions which one person cannot observe directly in another. In student learning situations, research has determined that while those learning programs calling for a strictly covert, mental response offer the advantage of a shorter learning period, programs that require some type of overt response are more successful in overall achievement.

1. Beaumont, Henry. Psychological Factors in Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949.

2. Belkin, Gary S., and Gray, Jerry L. Educational Psychology. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1977.

3. Eyseneck, H. J. Encyclopedia of Psychology. New York: Herder and Herder, 1972.

Criticism

Criticism is the evaluation or analysis of knowledge that stresses fault, blame, or demerit of a situation. It is unfavorable feedback for student learning; it implies ridicule, disapproval and makes a moral judgment hindering communication. Bernard, Harold, and Huckins, Wesley. "An Eclectic Approach to Teaching and Learning." Humanism in the Classroom. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974, p. 308.

1. Harris, I. D., and Howard, K. I. "Parental criticism and the adolescent experience." Youth Adolescent, (April 1984), pp. 113-121.

2. Mullins, S. S. "Accepting and giving constructive criticism." Instrumentalist, (July 1984), p. 80.

3. Soderbergh, P. A. "Criticism." The High School Journal, (January 1984), pp. 132-134.

Cueing

Cueing is a way to focus student attention, i.e., an alerting technique. According to Benjamin Bloom, cues include instruction both in what the learner is to do and in what is to be learned.

1. Bloom, Benjamin S. (1981). All Our Children Learning. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, pp. 9, 60.

2. Cazden, Courtney B. (1986). Classroom Discourse. Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd Edition. Merlin C. Wittrock, editor. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, p. 438.

3. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley. (1984). Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, pp. 7, 42, 53.

Deadtime

Deadtime is unproductive time--time when nothing is being accomplished. It is created when instructional time is used inappropriately. Teachers sometimes make the error of underplanning and deadtime occurs. Deadtime comes in many forms: a bored student who has nothing to do, students standing in a line, students waiting for the teacher to get organized for the next lesson. An effective teacher sets an appropriate instructional pace and has well-planned lessons that eliminate the opportunity for deadtime.

1. Callahan, Joseph, and Clark, Leonard. Teaching in the Elementary School. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1977.

2. Goodlad, John I. A Place Called School. St. Louis: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1984.

3. Shepardson, Richard D. Elementary Teacher's Discipline Handbook. West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1980.

Desisting

Kounin (1977) described desist to mean a teacher's intervention which is meant to stop a misbehavior. Rosenshine (1971) indicated that hostile, threatening desists relate to lack of growth in reading, while non-threatening desists relate to reading achievement. Desists are necessary, often for the safety of students (Kerman and Martin, 1980).

1. Kerman, S., and Martin, M. (1980). Teacher expectations and student achievement. Bloomington, Indiana. Phi Delta Kappa.

2. Kounin, J. (1970). Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. Huntington, N.Y.: R. E. Krieger Publishing Co.

3. Rosenshine, B. (1971). Teaching Behaviors and Student Achievement. London: National Foundation for Education Research in England and Wales.

Deviancy Desist

Deviancy desist refers to the actions taken by the teacher to correct inappropriate student behavior, e.g., inattention and disruption. Some researchers, but not all, include preventive actions as well as responsive actions. "...henceforth, the term desist will be used to designate a teacher's doing something to stop a misbehavior" (Kounin, 1970).

1. Berliner, David C. (1984). The half-full glass: A review of research on teaching. Using What We Know About Teaching. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Phillip L. Hosford, chairperson and editor, pp. 65-68.

2. Brophy, Jere E., and Putnam, Joyce G. (October 1978). Classroom management in the elementary grades. Research Series No. 32. East Lansing, Michigan: The Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, p. 22.

3. Kounin, Jacob S. (1970). Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Robert E. Krieger Publication Company, p. 2.

Diagnostic Survey

Diagnostic survey is a test (usually of achievement), designed to identify specific educational and study weaknesses. It is important to ask the proper question and set appropriate tasks to be accomplished so that the teacher can use the results to determine the appropriate direction of instruction and the appropriateness of curricular skills and tasks. Effective teachers will rely upon diagnostic surveys as one method to ascertain student readiness for future curriculum.

1. Callahan, Joseph, and Clark, Leonard. Teaching in the Elementary School. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1977.

2. Craig, Robert et al. Contemporary Educational Psychology. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1975.

3. Hankins, Norman E. Psychology for Contemporary Education. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill Publishing Company, 1973.

Effective School

The term effective school describes schools that have high achievement regardless of the type of community served by the school. These schools have been examined and found to have specific characteristics which impact the level of achievement.

1. Brookover, W. B.; Beamer, L.; Efthim, H.; Hathaway, D.; Lezotte, L.; Miller, S.; Passalacqua, J.; and Tornatzky, L. Creating Effective Schools (Holmes Beach, F 1982), p. 2.

2. Brookover, W. B., and Lezotte, L. W. Changes in School Characteristics Coincident with Changes in School Achievement (Executive Summary). East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, 1977.

3. Edmonds, R. R. "Some schools work and more can." Social Policy, 9 (1979), pp. 28-32.

Effective Teaching

Effective teaching can best be described by identifying behaviors effective teachers exhibit. Effective teaching includes high expectations for student achievement. Effective use of time is another element of effective teaching. Rosenthal, in 1978, formulated the following recipe on effective instruction: 1) the formulation of clear learning goals, 2) the promotion of extensive context coverage and high levels of student involvement, 3) active monitoring of student progress, 4) the structuring of learning activities and the provision of immediate feedback to students, 5) the creation of a task oriented but relaxed environment.

Caring is an important element of effective teaching if we want children to grow up feeling confident and contented. Effective teaching offers a secure and caring environment in order to achieve their full potential and to achieve autonomy.

1. Kong, Sheri L. Teaching and Caring. Kensington Educational. 1983.

2. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984.

3. Vander Zander, James W. Educational Psychology. Random House, 1984.

Encouragement

Encouragement is a nonjudgmental form of positive reinforcement. It gives direction and support and helps students focus on the task at hand. Encouragement helps students feel that accomplishment of the task is possible. Ways to encourage might include referring to past accomplishments, stating belief in the ability of the student to accomplish the task, or indicating the next steps to take in completion of the task.

1. Brookover, Wilbur B. et al. Creating Effective Schools. Holmes Beach, Florida: Learning Publications, Inc., 1972.

2. Collier, Calhoun C. et al. Modern Elementary Education--Teaching and Learning. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1976.

3. Mehl, Marie et al. Teaching in the Elementary School. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958.

Engaged Time

Engaged time refers to the amount of time that students actually spend interacting, studying, and/or discussing a subject or learning objective written in the allocated time frame. It is, in other words, the proportion of allocated time spent "on task."

The research strongly suggests the positive correlation between the amount of time a student spends on a subject and the achievement in that subject. Engaged time, in order to be effective, must be spent at an appropriate level of difficulty for student success. A task that is too easy wastes time and a task that is too difficult can frustrate and distract the student's attention. Consequently, engaged time is largely dependent on student success with the learning activity.

1. Shockly, Robert. Time on Task. National Association of Secondary School Principals, December 1983.

2. Vander Zander, James. Educational Psychology. Random House, 1984.

Equitable Distribution of Response Opportunities

Teachers call on students they perceive as high achievers to recite and/or perform as often as they call on students they perceive to be low achievers.

Most teachers call on students they perceive to be high achievers more frequently than they call on students they perceive to be low achievers because they do not want to embarrass the student that might not know the answer, they may want the rest of the class to hear the correct or most thoughtful response, and/or they like the rewards that high quality student response gives the teacher's efforts. Researchers have found that teachers give preferential treatment to "gifted" and white students.

The student considered a low achiever soon realizes that he/she will probably not be called on and knows why--because he/she's not one of the smarter students. He/she may try and get attention in other ways or go through school as unnoticed as possible. Whichever reaction they have to the situation, he/she is not going to receive an equal opportunity to learn unless they are capable of learning more from listening than participating. The situation has a circular effect. Because the teacher thinks she/he is less able, she/he is not called on; and because he/she is not called on, she/he becomes less able.

1. Finn, Jeremy D. "Expectations and the educational environment." Review of Educational Research, 42 (Summer 1972), pp. 387-410.

2. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. "Analyzing classroom interaction: A more powerful alternative." Educational Technology, 11 (1971a), pp. 36-41.

3. Horn, Ernest. Distribution of Opportunity for Participation among Various Pupils in Classroom Recitations. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1914.

Feedback

Feedback refers to information we receive about performance or the consequences of the performance. The corrective, reinforcing and motivating influences of feedback make it one of the strongest and most important factors controlling motor performance. Teachers' appropriate use of feedback is frequently correlated with effective instruction. This knowledge of results can influence motivation as well as amount of learning.

1. Rosenshine, B. V. "Teaching functions in instructional programs." The Elementary School Journal, 83 (1983), pp. 335-352.

2. Denham, C., and Lieberman, A. (Eds.). Time to Learn. Washington: Program on Teaching and Learning, National Institute of Education, 1980.

3. Fischer, C. W.; Berliner, D. C.; Filby, N.; Marliave, R.; Cahen, L. S.; Dishaw, M. M.; and Moore, J. E. Teaching and Learning in the Elementary School: A Summary of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. San Francisco Technical Report VII-1, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 165 322).

Freedom from Deviancy

Freedom from deviancy describes the classroom situation in which students are attending to their lessons; i.e., students are on task. Teachers need techniques that prevent deviancy, as well as techniques for correcting it.

1. Berliner, David C. (1984). The half-full glass: A review of research on teaching. Using What We Know About Teaching. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Phillip L. Hosford, chairperson and editor, pp. 65-68.

2. Moran, Lyn (Ed.). (1981). Some are more equal than others? School Improvement. Denver, Colorado: McREL Publication, pp. 65-68.

3. American Association of School Administrators. Time on Task. (1982). Arlington, Virginia: Author, pp. 29-30, 39-40.

Group Alerting

Group alerting is a means for the teacher to keep students focused on the task-at-hand. According to Jacob Kounin, it is "teacher behavior designed to maintain or re-establish attention during lessons." Group alerting has both positive and negative aspects, for it can be overdone. Group alerting is desirable in some aspects but not in others.

1. Anderson, L. M.; Evertson, C. M.; and Brophy, J. E. "An experimental study of effective teaching in first grade reading groups." The Elementary School Journal, 79 (1979), pp. 193-223.

2. Berliner, David C. (1984). The half-full glass: A review of research on teaching. Using What We Know About Teaching. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Phillip L. Hosford, chairperson and editor, p. 68.

3. Brophy, Jere E., and Putnam, Joyce G. (October 1978). Classroom management in the elementary grades. Research Series No. 32. East Lansing, Michigan: The Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University, pp. 42-44.

Groups

A group is two or more persons or things ranged or considered together. The term is used to classify pupils or other individuals into an assemblage consisting of two or more. Reading groups, cooperative learning groups, instructional groups, cooperative learning grouping, ability grouping, and peer/coaching groups.

1. Anderson, L.; Evertson, C.; and Brophy, J. "An experimental study of effective teaching in first grade reading groups." Elementary School Journal, 79(4) (1979), pp. 193-223.

2. Calfee, R., and Brown, R. (1979). Grouping students for instruction. In D. L. Duke (Ed.), Classroom Management, the 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Part II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

3. Doyle, W. (1986). Classroom organization and management. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., p. 405.

Guided Practice

Guided practice is the term used to describe that part of the lesson plan during which the students practice new skills under the close supervision of the teacher before they proceed to independent practice (Russell, 1979). During guided practice the teacher can use four strategies: 1) guide the students or groups through each learning step; 2) monitor group response and provide feedback; 3) sample group understanding through individual responses; 4) monitor each individual's response (Hunter, 1982). During guided practice the students: 1) begin to work new problems or apply new skills; 2) receive additional process explanation if necessary; 3) receive correction and reteaching when

necessary (Rosenshine, 1983). Researchers (Anderson, 1979; Good and Grouws, 1979) have found that teachers who had been trained to use guided practice after presentation had students with higher achievement. Guided practice is also called "controlled practice" (Rosenshine, 1983; McGreal, 1984).

1. Anderson, L. M.; Evertson, C. M.; and Brophy, J. E. "An experimental study of effective teaching in first-grade reading groups." Elementary School Journal, 79 (1979), pp. 193-222.

2. Good, T. L., and Grouws, D. A. "The Missouri mathematics effectiveness project." Journal of Educational Psychology, 71 (1979), pp. 355-362.

3. McGreal, T. L. (1984). Workshop on teacher evaluation. Marshalltown, Iowa, 11-28-84.

High Expectations

High expectations is often referred to as self-fulfilling prophecy. The term suggests that teachers reflect their expectations in their interaction with children and thus produce differential achievement among them. Rosenthal and Jacobson, in their publication, Pygmalion in the Classroom, concluded that a teacher's expectations can appreciably affect a pupil's academic achievement. Mellon, in 1978, concluded that teachers and students influence one another, but teacher expectancies were found to have more influence on children's achievement than children's performance had upon teacher attitudes. Research suggests that how a teacher feels about a student influences how that child performs in an academic setting.

1. Rosenthal, J. N., and Jacobson, L. Pygmalion in the Classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

2. Eason, Morris E. Psychological Foundations of Education. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

3. Hoy, Wayne K. Educational Administration. Theory, Research, and Practice. Random House, 1982.

Independent Practice

Independent practice is a term used to describe the final stage of lesson design during which time students practice new skills with little or no supervision from the teacher. This activity can occur as seatwork

or homework (McGreal, 1983). It is the practice which is needed for maintenance or increased fluency once the student is able to perform without major errors, discomfort, or confusion, and is properly used only after students have successfully completed guided practice (Hunter, 1982). During independent practice the student progresses through two stages: unitization and automaticity (Rosenshine, 1983). Independent practice can be one of the most violated and neglected aspects of a good lesson plan because if time runs out in a class it is usually skipped and the teacher moves directly to assignment of homework without having checked to determine whether the student can succeed. The high-gain teacher frequently assigns homework, but in limited amounts sufficient for providing independent practice on what has been learned during the lesson (Manatt and Stow, 1984).

1. Rosenshine, Barak. "Teaching functions in instructional programs. The Elementary School Journal, 83(4) (1983), pp. 335-351.

2. McGreal, T. L. Successful Teacher Evaluation. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, 1983.

3. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984, p. 8.

Input

Input is direct instruction that is put in and can include lecture, recitation, teacher-led discussions, or any other techniques that teachers want to use for conveying information or directions.

1. Bailis, P., and Hunter, M. "Do your words get them to think?" Learning, 14(1) (1985), p. 43.

2. Hunter, M. Prescription for Improved Instruction. California: TIP Publications, 1976.

3. MacMillan, D. L.; Koegh, B. K.; and Jones, R. L. Special educational research on mildly handicapped learners. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of Research on Teaching. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1986, pp. 697-698.

Knowledge of Results

Knowledge of results in learning is information as to whether or not a response is correct and whether progress or improvement is being made.

1. Butler, R., and Nisan, M. "Effects of no feedback, task-related comments, and grades on intrinsic motivation and performance." Journal of Educational Psychology, 78 (1986), pp. 210-216.

2. Elawar, M. C., and Corno, L. "A factorial experiment in teachers' written feedback on student homework; changing teacher behavior a little rather than a lot. Journal of Educational Psychology, 77 (1985), pp. 162-173.

3. Mangano, N. G., and Benton, S. L. "Comparison of question-response-feedback interactions during basal reader instruction." Journal of Educational Research, 78 (1984), pp. 119-126.

Law of Least Intervention

The law of least intervention is the principle of selecting the intervention that is the least restrictive on the individual. An intervention is any action on the part that serves to change the relative position of the objects or forces of the environment and of the organism itself, thus b inging new stimuli to bear upon the organism.

1. Anastasion, N. J. (1978). Early intervention and the integration of handicapped and nonhandicapped children. In M. J. Gurlanick (Ed.), Strategies and Models for Early Childhood Intervention Programs in Integrated Settings. Baltimore: University Park Press, pp. 239-252.

2. Brinker, R. P. "Contingency intervention with the help of micro computers." Journal of Special Education Technology, 5 (1982), pp. 37-39.

3. Eliot, S. N. "Acceptability of positive and reductive behavioral interventions: Factors that influence teachers' decision." Journal of School Psychology, 22 (1984), pp. 353-360.

Level of Concern

Level of concern is how much a student cares about whether or not he or she learns. A high level of concern is desirable for maximum effectiveness in several principles of learning including motivation, transfer, and retention. Conversely, a low level of concern would restrict initial learning achievement because of a loss of effectiveness in motivation and transfer, and retention would be minimum, if at all present.

1. Hunter, M. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1982.

2. Hunter, M. Motivation Theory for Teachers. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1982.

3. Hunter, M. Retention Theory for Teachers. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1982.

4. Hunter, M. Teach for Transfer. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1982.

Level of Difficulty

Level of difficulty refers to the "hardness" of learner material, questions, and text readability, etc. The level of difficulty can often be measured by either teacher made or manufactured instruments. Manatt and Stow state, "a careful examination of the research on teachers' planning reveals that if teachers attend to instructional objectives, the correct level of difficulty, instructional methods and procedures, materials, student activities, and formative and summative evaluation techniques, their resulting preparedness can increase the probability of being effective in the classroom."

1. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, 1984.

Listening

It is important for student learning that the teacher hear what the student is saying or asking. Students are confused when they are not understood. Teachers need to listen and really hear what the student is saying.

Even though students are expected to listen much of their time in the classroom, research has shown that teachers of low achievers talk more than teachers of high achievers. The student who is perceived as a low achiever usually is offered fewer response opportunities than other children and probably volunteers less often. Consequently, he/she is listened to less often than other students. Perhaps we need to make a special effort to really hear him/her.

1. Flanders, Ned A. "Interaction Models of Critical Teaching Behaviors." In An Analysis and Projection of Research in Teacher Education, F. R. Cyphert and E. Spaights (Eds.). Columbus Ohio: College of Education, The Ohio State University, 1964, pp. 197-218.

2. Gordon, Thomas. T.E.T. Teacher Effectiveness Training. New York: Peter H. Wyden, Inc., 1974.

3. Jackson, Philip W. Life in Classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

Management by Walking Around (MBWA)

MBWA is a management technique used by several successful American companies. It is called "Visible Management" and "Management by Walking About" at United Airlines. At Hewlett-Packard, "Management by Wandering Around" is considered a major tenet of the "HP Way." It is a technique for getting management out of the office and into constant, informal communication with employees.

1. Peters, Thomas, and Waterman, Robert H. Jr. (1984). In Search of Excellence. New York: Warner Books and Harper & Row, pp. 121-125.

2. Peters, Thomas, and Austin, Nancy. (1982). A Passion for Excellence. New York: Warner Books and Harper & Row.

Meaning

Meaning is probably the single most important factor contributing to successful and rapid learning. It implies understanding by the student, not meaning just in the material itself. Madeline Hunter. Teach More Faster! El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1969.

1. Barrett, M. D. "The course of early lexical development: A review and interpretation." Early Child Development and Care, 11(1) (1983), pp. 19-32.

2. Feinstein, H. "Meaning and visual metaphor." Studies in Art Education, 23(2) (1982), pp. 45-55.

3. Heyman, R. D. "Clarifying meaning through classroom talk." Curriculum Inquiry, 13 (1983), pp. 23-42.

Meaningful Processing

Meaningful processing is the mental activity required to organize material for understanding. Different types of data require different types of thought processes for assimilation.

1. Anderson, O. R., and Callaway, J. "Studies of information processing rates in science learning and related cognitive variables: A first approximation to estimating a relationship between science reasoning skills and information acquisition." Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 23 (1986), pp. 67-72.

2. Aiello-Nicosia, M. L., and others. "The relationship between science process abilities of teachers and science achievement of students: An experimental study." Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 21 (1984), pp. 853-858.

3. Duschl, R. A. "Using wood blocks in teaching data process skills." Science Activities, 22 (1985), pp. 26-29.

Mental Set

Mental set is a state of emotional and mental readiness, receptivity, and motivation to engage in a particular learning activity. Without the proper mental set, learning is made more difficult.

1. Hawes, Gene R., and Salop, Lynne. (1982). The Concise Dictionary of Education. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., p. 140.

2. Schuck, R. F. "An empirical analysis of the power of set induction and systematic questioning as instructional strategies." Journal of Teacher Education, 36 (1985), pp. 38-43.

3. Holley, C. D., and others. "Some data and comments regarding educational set theory (educational set scale)." Journal of Educational Psychology, 73 (1981), pp. 494-504.

Modeling

Modeling is showing the student exactly what behaviors are expected. It is the actions of telling, showing, explaining, illustrating or questioning. Modeling enables the learner not only to know about, but to see examples of desired product, process, or behavior. It is also important that the visual input of modeling be accompanied by the verbal input or labeling of the critical elements. This keeps the learner focused on the essentials rather than being distracted by transitory or non-relevant factors in the process or product.

1. Bandura, Arthur. Social Learning Theory. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1977.

2. Eson, Morris E. Psychological Foundations of Education. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

3. Hunter, Madeline. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, CA: TIP Publications, 1983.

Monitoring Learning

Berliner and Rosenshine refer to it as "monitoring student activities," when an adult monitors student learning/activities. Soar (1973) discovered that when students worked in a group under adult supervision, correlations with achievement were positive and often significant...many students do not engage in on-task academic behavior when a teacher/adult is not "monitoring their academic activities." Good and Brophy (1973) speak of "monitoring attention" during the lesson, the teacher should regularly scan the class or group he/she is teaching to see if students are paying attention and are focused on the lesson. The students are more likely to be on task if they know the teacher regularly watches everyone.

1. Berliner and Rosenshine. (1977). The Acquisition of Knowledge in the Classroom.

2. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking into Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1973.

Monitoring Success Rate

Monitoring is a term used to describe the process where a teacher will watch the performance of a student to know if they are learning

successfully. Teachers can monitor success by using verbal interaction, nonverbal clues, quizzes and homework checks. Monitoring success provides teachers feedback on the success of their lesson. In other words, it lets the teacher know if a lesson needs to be modified to meet the needs of the learners.

1. Manatt, Richard, and Stow, Shirley. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance. Iowa State Research Foundation, 1984.

2. Oliva, Peter F. Supervision for Today's Schools. New York and London: Longman, Inc., 1984.

3. Roueche, John E., and Baker, George A. Profiling Excellence in America's Schools. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1986.

Negative Reinforcement

Negative reinforcement is when an undesirable consequence occurs or is removed, it also increases the likelihood that the behavior will occur again. A negative reinforcer is a stimulus that, when removed following a behavior, strengthens the probability of its future occurrence. Negative reinforcement can create a tense environment. To work day to day in a situation of this nature would become extremely difficult; the type of unpleasant treatment may be construed as punishment and not motivation. This is not the appropriate reinforcement technique that should be used at any level, in school or at the work place.

1. Hilgard, E. R.; Atkinson, R. C.; and Atkinson, R. L. Introduction to Psychology, 6th ed. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Javanovich, 1975.

2. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Ames, Iowa, 1984.

3. Tosi, Henry L.; Rizzo, John R.; and Carroll, Stephan J. Managing Organizational Behavior. Pitman Publishing Inc., A Longman Inc. Company, 1986, pp. 257-259.

Opportunity to Learn Criterion Material

Opportunity to learn criterion material is the amount of time that the organization of the course would allow for learning a set of objectives or a task. The implication is that if this time was less than the time a student needed, learning would be less than complete, and that opportunity to learn in conventional teaching programs would be less than desirable for many students.

1. Fisher, Charles W., and Berliner, David C. (1985). Perspectives on Instructional Time. New York: Longman, Inc., pp. 43-44.

2. Kepler, K. B. (1980). BTES: Implications for preservice education in teachers. Denham, C., and Lieberman, A. (Eds.). Time to Learn. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, pp. 139-157.

3. Fisher, C. W.,; Marliave, R. S.; and Filby, N. N. "Improving teaching by increasing academic learning time." Educational Leadership, (1979), pp. 52-54.

Overlapping

The teacher in a well-organized class attends to a teaching task and a disruption simultaneously, without affecting the flow of activity(ies). (Also called task-desist overlapping.) Like a skilled chef, the high-gain teacher has the ability to dovetail several activities at once. They can handle routine, whole class activities and meet individual needs simultaneously.

1. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Ames, Iowa, 1984.

Overlearning

Overlearning is the mastery of skills or concepts to the point where automaticity occurs. It improves the retention of learning, particularly with hierarchically organized material. Overlearning also facilitates the learning of similar and/or more complex ideas or tasks.

1. Howell, Robert G., and Howell, Patricia L. (1979). Discipline in the Classroom: Solving the Learning Puzzle. Reston, Virginia: Reston Publishing Company, Inc., p. 84.

2. Joyce, Bruce R. (1986). Improving America's Schools. New York, N.Y.: Longman, p. 91.

3. Rosenshine, Barak. "Teaching functions in instructional programs." The Elementary School Journal, 44(4) (March 1983), pp. 337, 345.

4. Rosenshine, Barak, and Stevens, Robert. (1986). Teaching Functions. Handbook of Research on Teaching, Third Edition, Merlin C. Wittrock (Ed.). New York, N.Y.: Macmillan Publishing Company, p. 383.

Overt Behavior

Overt behavior includes external or visible behaviors or process of thinking and emotional reactions which one person can observe directly in another. In student learning situations, research has determined that any act which is easily observed by an outsider, such as raising of one's hand, moving one's head up or down, or any other type of visible, audible activity, would be considered as an overt behavior.

1. Beaumont, H. Psychological Factors in Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949, pp. 41-44.

2. Belkin, G., and Gray, J. Educational Psychology, an introduction. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1977, p. 329.

3. Reber, A. The Penguin Dictionary of Psychology. Middlesex, England: Viking Publishing, p. 507.

Personal Interest/Compliments

Personal interest is taking the time to listen to a student who wishes to share a personal experience (Kerman and Martin, 1980). Perkins (1965) contended that areas, events, and activities having special significance for an individual facilitate the enhancement of self. Compliments of a personal nature are given to a student for positive behaviors which are unrelated to instructional tasks (Kerman and Martin, 1980).

1. Kerman, S., and Martin, M. (1980). Teacher expectations and student achievement. Bloomington, Indiana. Phi Delta Kappa.

2. Perkins, H. "Classroom behavior and underachievement." American Educational Research Journal, (2) (1965), pp. 1-11.

Positive Reinforcement

Positive reinforcement can play an important role in education and especially in classroom situations. Teachers can consciously employ positive reinforcers to realize a wide variety of goals. When positive reinforcement is linked to a behavior, it increases the likelihood that the behavior will reoccur. Positive reinforcement can also become an extremely effective tool in developing better intergroup relations as well as individual situations.

1. Hauserman, N.; Walen, S. R.; and Behling, M. "Reinforced racial integration in the first grade: A study in generalization." Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 6 (1973), pp. 193-200.

2. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Ames, Iowa, 1984.

3. Tosi, Henry L.; Rizzo, John R.; and Carroll, Stephan J. (1986). Managing Operation Behavior. Pitman Publishing Inc., A Longman Inc. Company, pp. 256-257.

Praise

Recent classroom research finds that teacher praise does not usually function as a reinforcer or as a motivator. Instead, praise seems to function by providing information to all the students who observe the student receiving the praise. The information conveys knowledge about the answers, the desired behavior, and the teacher's expectations. Wittrock, Merlin, "Students' Thought Process." Handbook of Research on Teaching. Ed. Merlin Wittrock. New York: Macmillan, 1986.

1. Brookover et al. Creating Effective Schools. Florida: Learning Publications, Inc., 1982.

2. Brophy, J. E. "Teacher Praise: A Functional Analysis." Review of Educational Research, 51(1) (1981), pp. 5-32.

3. Martin, David L. "Your praise can smother learning." Learning: The Magazine for Creative Teaching, 5 (1977), pp. 42-51.

Praise of Learning Performance

Encouragement or reinforcement for student performance. Most teachers use some form of praise when a student tries or performs well.

Students most in need of encouragement and reinforcement would seem to be low achievers, but researchers have observed that students perceived as high achievers received the most praise. This could be because high achievers have the most opportunity to perform (refer back to equitable distribution of response opportunities).

1. Clark, Carl A., and Walberg, Herbert J. "The Effects of Increased Reading Achievement on School Attitudes of Potential Dropouts." Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, New York, September 2, 1966.

2. Dornbusch, S.; Massey, G.; and Scott, M. "Racism Without Racists: Institutional Racism in Urban Schools." Stanford University, Stanford, California, 1975.

3. deGroat, A. F., and Thompson, G. G. "A Study of the Distribution of Teacher Approval and Disapproval."

Presage Variables

Presage variables concern the characteristics of teachers that may be examined for their effects on the teaching process. These variables include all the knowledge, attitudes, values, and personality characteristics that teachers bring to the classroom. Presage variables may include gender, race, social class, education, general knowledge, subject-matter knowledge, and to some extent, the understanding of educational facts and principles.

1. Crawford, J.; Brophy, J. E.; Evertson, C. M.; and Coulter, C. L. "Classroom dyadic interaction: Factor structure of process variables and achievement correlates." Journal of Educational Psychology, 69 (1977), pp. 761-772.

2. Medley, D. M. Teacher effectiveness. In H. E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1982, pp. 1894-1903.

3. Kleine, P. F. Teaching styles. In H. E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1982, pp. 1927-1932.

Pretests

Pretests may be used to discover the achievement of instructional objectives which pupils already possess as a result of previous school and out-of-school experiences. The results of these tests can be used to plan the relative emphasis in instruction and perhaps to show when certain parts of the course may be omitted. When well constructed, pretests also may serve as stimulators of interest in the materials to be studied. Such a test may indicate to pupils the kind of achievement they may expect to acquire from the instruction they will receive; if the test has been interestingly written, they may learn for themselves the areas in which they are strong and weak and distribute their learning efforts accordingly. Remmers, H. H. Educational Management and Evaluation. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1955.

1. Ahman, S., and Glock, M. Evaluating Pupil Growth. New York: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1983.

2. Borg, W. R., and Gall, Meredith. Educational Research. New York: Longman, Inc., 1983.

3. Nitko, Anthony. Educational Tests and Measurement: An Introduction. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1983.

Preview

Preview is a term which can be used to describe the practice of providing learners with a brief overview of information to be studied and some awareness of its importance in the general learning scheme. It is an advanced organizer and combines anticipatory set and statement of objectives by providing students information about where they are going in class, the relevance of what they are learning, and a sense of continuity (McGreal, 1983). Students pay greater attention when the teacher spends time discussing goals or structure of a lesson and/or when directions are clearly given about what it is the student is to do (Berliner, 1984). Students learn more effectively when they know what they're supposed to learn and why it is important. Teachers teach more effectively when they have that same information (Hunter, 1984). In most cases learning will be facilitated if the teacher tells the objective and the purpose for learning (Hunter, 1982).

1. Berliner, David C. (1984). The half-full glass: A review of research on teaching. Using What We Know About Teaching. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, pp. 51-81.

2. McGreal, T. L. (1983). Successful Teacher Evaluation. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD.

3. Hunter, Madeline. (1984). Knowing, teaching and supervising. Using What We Know About Teaching. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, pp. 171-195.

Proactive Management

Proactive management focuses on desirable behaviors using management techniques that prevent problems from emerging.

1. Kounin, J. S. Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

2. Bandura, A. Principles of Behavior Modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

3. O'Leary, K., and O'Leary, S. (Eds.). Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification, 2nd ed. New York: Pergamon, 1977.

4. Emmer, E. Tt. "Effective classroom management at the beginning of the school year." Elementary School Journal, 80 (1980), pp. 219-231.

Procedures/Directions

Subject matter is proceduralized in order to satisfy management demands, that is, academic work is reduced by teachers and students to a set of procedures to be followed in completing assignments. The emphasis is on practice and completion, and instruction consists primarily of directions for completing worksheets.

1. Doyle, Walter. "Classroom organization and management." Handbook of Research on Teaching. Merlin Wittrock (Ed.). New York: Macmillan, 1986.

2. Anderson, L. (April 1983). Achievement-related differences in students' responses to seatwork. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association/Montreal.

3. Blummenfeld et al. (1983). Teacher Talk and Student Thought: Socialization into the Student Role. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

Process Product Research

Process product research is the term used to indicate the study of strategies used by the effective teacher and the resulting effects on the learner.

1. Eggen, Paul D.; Kauchak, Donald P.; and Harder, Robert J. Strategies for Teachers: Information Processing Models in the Classroom. Prentice-Hall Inc., 1979, Ch. 4 and 5, pp. 102-190.

2. Manatt, Richard P. Teacher Performance Evaluation--Practical Applications of Research. SIM Occasional Paper No. 82-1, 1981, pp. 2-4.

Process Variables

Process variables are observable classroom activities related to teacher performance and pupil learning experiences. They are actual behaviors and interactions that occur in the day-to-day instructional activities of the school. These variables are most often described and measured in the classroom in terms of conditions, climates, or typical situations involving the social interactions of students and teacher. Process variables may include pupil talk, teacher talk, time on task, teacher-student rapport, student discipline techniques, instructional techniques, student behaviors, and other student-teacher interactions which are a part of the whole process of learning.

1. Crawford, J.; Brophy, J. E.; Evertson, C. M.; and Coulter, C. L. "Classroom dyadic interaction: Factor structure of process variables and achievement correlates." Journal of Educational Psychology, 69 (1977), pp. 761-772.

2. Cruickshank, D. R. "Synthesis of selected recent research on teacher effects." Journal of Teacher Education, 27 (1976), pp. 57-60.

3. Kleine, P. F. Teaching styles. In H. E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1982, pp. 1927-1932.

Product Variables

Product variables consist primarily of measures of the goal-oriented effects of teachers (and schools) on children. These variables are the measures of pupil change in a given area, such as academic achievement or

self-esteem. Product variables correspond to teacher effectiveness and are based on pupil learning outcomes. Measurable student gains and/or student growth which can be attributed to the influence of individual teachers are identified as product variables.

1. Crawford, J.; Brophy, J. E.; Evertson, C. M.; and Coulter, C. L. "Classroom dyadic interaction: Factor structure of process variables and achievement correlates." Journal of Educational Psychology, 69 (1977), pp. 761-772.

2. Kleine, P. F. Teaching styles. In H. E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1982, pp. 1927-1932.

3. Medley, D. M. Teacher effectiveness. In H. E. Mitzel (Ed.), Encyclopedia of Educational Research. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1982, pp. 1894-1903.

Proximity

The nearness of a student to a teacher affects the teacher's interaction with the student (Adams and Biddle, 1970). Teachers oftentimes spend more time working closer to high ability students (Rist, 1972).

1. Adams, R., and Biddle, B. Realities of Teaching: Explorations with Videotape. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1970.

2. Rist, R. "Social distance and social inequality in a ghetto kindergarten classroom." Urban Education, 7 (1972), pp. 241-260.

Quality Time

Quality time is the amount of allocated time when students are actively engaged with the learning. Engaged time is what many school organizations call "quality time." More accurately, quality time is Academic Learning time (Manatt and Stow, 1984).

1. Manatt, R., and Stow, S. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. School Improvement Model Projects, College of Education, Iowa State University Research Foundation, Inc., 1984.

2. Fisher, C.; Berliner, D.; Filby, N.; Marliave, R.; Chance, L.; and Dishaw, M. "Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time, and

Student Achievement: An Overview." In Time to Learn. Edited by C. Denham and A. Lieberman. Washington, D.C.: The National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education, 1980.

3. Fisher, C. W.; Filby, N. N.; Marliave, R. S.; Cahen, L. S.; Dishaw, M. M.; Moore, J. E.; and Berliner, D. C. Teaching Behaviors, Academic Learning Time and Student Achievement. Final Report of Phase III-B, Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study. Technical Report V-1. San Francisco, CAAA: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1978.

Questioning

A question is a verbal utterance that seeks a response from the person to whom it is directed. It is a means of finding out and interpreting information. It is one of the first things that arouses the curiosity and mental activity of a child. Its most important offering is its value for stimulating and directing thinking. A well-developed understanding of the characteristics and potentials of the question, as well as skill in using it effectively, becomes one of the most valuable devices with which the teacher can assume his responsibilities as a manager of learning.

1. Stoner, W. F., and Pukala, D. R. "How to teach by asking questions." Instructional Innovator, (January 1984), p. 52.

2. Dillon, J. T. "Research on questioning and discussion." Educational Leadership, (November 1984), pp. 40-47.

3. Hess, K. "Why it's important to ask why?" G/C/T, 81 (September/October 1984).

Reactive Management

Reactive management is the control of behavior problems through emphasis on punishment. The deviancy happens then it is reacted to. It is the backwards manner of dealing with misbehavior.

1. Kounin, J. S. Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row, 1973.

2. Bandura, A. Principles of Behavior Modification. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

3. O'Leary, K., and O'Leary, S. (Eds.). Classroom Management: The Successful Use of Behavior Modification, 2nd ed. New York: Pergamon, 1977.

Reasons for Praise

Students often need an explanation as to why they are praised. The praise should be constructive. The student can benefit from understanding what he/she did that made his/her performance worthy of praise.

Sometimes a word like "good," a smile or nod is sufficient to let the student know they are doing well. But if a student has given a report, painted a picture, written a story, etc. he/she needs to know why it is good (or poor). This process of giving reasons has a much greater impact on the student than praise which is unrelated to a criterion.

1. Flanders, Ned A. "Analyzing teacher behavior." Educational Leadership, 19 (December 1961), pp. 173-180.

2. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. "Analyzing classroom interaction: A more powerful alternative." Educational Technology, 11 (1971a), pp. 36-41.

3. Powell, Evan R. "Classroom climate, pupil intelligence, and mechanical skill learning." Classroom Interaction Newsletter, 8 (December 1972), pp. 18-20.

Research on Teaching

Research on teaching is a term used to describe recent studies on teacher behaviors and teacher effects that have been reported since 1940. The modern era of this research began in 1957 with the work of investigators such as Flanders, Medley, and Mitzel. Even since then, the number of studies has been small. These studies have been conducted on specific variables such as teacher praise or teacher questions and these studies are spread across all grade levels, subject areas, and students' backgrounds.

1. Rosenshine, Barak. "Recent research on teaching behaviors and student achievement." Journal of Teacher Education, 27(1) (Spring 1976), pp. 61-64.

2. Peterson, Penny, and Walberg, Herbert. Research on Teaching, Concepts, Findings, and Implications. Berkeley, CA: McCatchan Publishing, 1979.

3. Rosenshine, B., and Furst, N. "Research on teacher performance criteria." Research in Teacher Education: A Symposium. Edited by O. Smith. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Publishing Co., 1971, pp. 46-56.

4. Clark, C. M., and Yinger, R. J. "Three studies of teacher planning." East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, Institute of Research on Teaching, Research Series No. 55, 1979.

5. Bennett, S. N. "Recent research on teaching: A dream, a belief, and a model." British Journal of Educational Psychology, 48 (1978), pp. 127-147.

Review

Review is that part of the lesson in which the teacher ensures that the students know the pre-requisite skills for the day's lesson. Review can occur on a daily, weekly or monthly follow-up basis. Activities include the teacher reviewing concepts and skills necessary to do homework, having students correct each other's papers, giving the teacher feedback on homework items, reteaching or providing additional practice when necessary (Rosenshine, 1983). In the elementary grades this function occurs when the teacher reviews word lists, word sounds, number facts and mathematical procedures. Review is the first of Rosenshine's six instructional functions, and included in the anticipatory set of the Russell/Hunter lesson design. Summary and review statements are important teacher strategies which help students put information into perspective, let students know where they have been, where they are going, and why. Some statements that typify review techniques are: "Let's review what we talked about"; "The important things you need to keep in mind are..."; "Putting together all the things we talked about, we can conclude that..." (McGreal, 1983).

1. Russell, Douglas, and Hunter, Madeline. (1977). Planning for effective instruction (lesson design). Instructor, September 1977. Reprint distributed by Russell at workshop, Cedar Falls, Iowa, 11-8-83.

2. McGreal, T. L. (1983). Successful Teacher Evaluation. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, p. 87.

3. Rosenshine, Barak. "Teaching functions in instructional programs." The Elementary School Journal, 83(4) (1983), pp. 335-351.

Safe, Orderly Environment

The description of a safe, orderly environment is a characteristic of school climate correlated with effective schools. It describes a school as a social system within which all members of the group are considered. Equitable consideration for well-being influences student achievement.

1. Edmonds, R. R. "Some schools work and more can." Social Policy, 9 (1979), pp. 28-32.

2. Lezotte, L. W.; Hathaway, D. V.; Miller, S. K.; Passalacqua, J.; and Brookover, W. B. School Learning Climate and Student Achievement: A Social Systems Approach to Increased Student Learning. Tallahassee, Florida: National Teacher Corps, Florida State University Foundation, 1980.

3. Brookover, W. B.; and Schneider, J. "Academic environments and elementary school achievement." Journal of Research and Development in Education, 9 (1975), pp. 83-91.

Script-Taping

The process of capturing with pen and pad exactly what happened in an observed segment of teaching so that cause-effect relationship can be reviewed and discussed by the teacher and observer at a later time. The class information is taken verbatim. The information is analyzed and studied to determine the cause and effect of the information taken. Write down word for word what teacher and student behavior is also...teacher and student said.

1. Wendt, Roger, and Henshaw, Katherine. Effective Schools Through Staff Development Vocabulary. Sioux City Community Schools.

2. Hunter, Madeline. Educational Leadership, 41(3) (1983), p. 43.

Structuring Comment

Structuring comment is the term used to describe a word or phrase which provides a clear, verbal marker of importance (e.g., "Now get this"). Structuring comments are employed to provide the cognitive scaffolding for what is to happen or what has happened. Teachers may use this cueing technique to expose students to key words which provide a brief overview of the information to be studied and some notion of its importance in the overall scheme of the lesson. Structuring comments facilitate learning and retention by clarifying the task and helping the lesson proceed smoothly.

1. Ausubel, D. P. "The use of advance organizers in the learning and retention of meaningful verbal material." Journal of Educational Psychology, 51 (1960), pp. 267-272.

2. Weiss, W., and Fine, B. J. "Stimulus familiarization as a factor in ideational learning." Journal of Educational Psychology, 47 (1956), pp. 118-124.

3. Gage, N. L. "A factorially designed experiment on teacher structuring, soliciting, and reacting." Journal of Teacher Education, 27 (1976), pp. 35-38.

Student Accountability

Student accountability is a term used to describe the obligation or responsibility of the student to answer to the teacher in some demonstrable manner for actions or results of learning (Manatt and Stow, 1984). Student accountability is enhanced by teacher monitoring and feedback in the form of grades, rewards, or criticism of homework, classwork, and test performance. Researchers have determined that when students are held accountable for academic work, there is evidence of increased achievement (Berliner, 1984). A characteristic of high-gain secondary teachers is the development of student accountability for work (Manatt and Stow). In the early grades accountability is secondary to student anxiety, confusion, and short attention span (Good and Brophy, 1978). Teaching characteristics which promote student accountability include: 1) requiring students to turn in all assignments; 2) establishment of clear expectations and high standards emphasizing the students' responsibility to complete all assignments; 3) checking on student assignments by the teacher; 4) returning student assignments after the teacher checks their work (McGreal). The importance of student accountability was emphasized in "A Nation At Risk" (1983).

1. Berliner, David C. (1984). The half-full glass: A review of research on teaching. Using What We Know About Teaching. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, pp. 51-81.

2. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. (1978). Looking into Classrooms, 2nd ed. New York: Harper & Row, p. 187.

3. McGreal, T. L. (1983). Successful Teacher Evaluation. Alexandria, Virginia: ASCD, p. 93.

4. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. (1984). Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Research Foundation, pp. 19, 63.

Synthesis

"When teaching is artful, one sees a sense of wonder, an excitement in the subject matter, the free play of the imagination, a what-if vision of the world, an evoking of the unknown, and synthesis" (Ducharme and Kluender, 1986).

"...the ability to synthesize, or the ability to combine several elements into a new form or whole..." "...the child is building up a synthesis out of partial impressions..." "As single brush strokes unite to form new shapes and solid areas, synthesis occurs and each student...develops a meaningful artistic organization" (Brittain and Lowenfeld, 1967).

1. Ducharme, Edward R., and Kluender, Mary M. "Good teachers in good schools: Some reflections." Educational Leadership (October 1986), pp. 43-46.

2. Brittain, W. Lambert, and Lowenfeld, Viktor. Creative and Mental Growth. New York: Macmillan Company, 1967, p. 9.

Task Analysis

"One must first identify what types of learning are involved in an educational situation. This ´task analysis´ is prepared with reference to some inventory or ´taxonomy´ of learning types. Further, one can derive more specific indications not only as to what is to be taught but also as to how it is to be taught because the learning types are hierarchically arranged in the taxonomy and the conditions for facilitating each type of learning are indicated. Thus we refer to the present approach to

instructional theory construction as a task analysis instructional theory..." (Snelbecker, 1974).

"Analyze each of the skills according to their degree of complexity and continuity, and whether the person and/or the object is at rest or in motion" (Gorman, 1974).

"Analysis of the nature of a learning task reveals the sequential or hierarchical characteristics of what is to be learned, which helps determine the order of the instruction" (Hudgins et al., 1983).

1. Snelbecker, Glenn E. (1974). Learning Theory, Instructional Theory, and Psycheducational Design. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., p. 454.

2. Gorman, Richard M. (1974). Educational Psychology. Columbus, Ohio: A. Bell & Howell Company, p. 346.

3. Hudgins, B. B. et al. (1983). Educational Psychology. Itasca, Illinois: Peacock Publishers, Inc., p. 438.

Teacher Effect

Teacher effect is the term used in education to describe the attributes or qualities of the successful teacher's cognitive, psychomotor and affective functioning as they affect the learning situation. "The successful teachers in the low SES (socio-economic status) schools had high expectations for students; were more supportive, encouraging, and affectively oriented; were willing to reteach and to take up personal matters with students...."

1. Cruickshank, Donald R. "Synthesis of selected recent research on teacher effects." Journal of Teacher Education, 27(1) (Spring 1976), pp. 57-60.

2. Emmer, E.; Evertson, C.; and Brophy, J. "Stability of teacher effects in junior high classrooms." American Educational Research Journal, 16 (1979), pp. 71-75.

Teacher Expectations

The expectations teachers have about what students can and/or cannot learn.

Research finding: Teachers who set and communicate high expectations to all their students obtain greater academic performance from those students than teachers who set low expectations.

1. Rosenthal, R., and Jacobson, L. Pygmalion in the Classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968.

2. Mackenzie, D. School Effectiveness Research: A Synthesis and Assessment of Educational Productivity and School Effectiveness. Austin, Texas: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1983.

3. Percell, C. H. Education and Inequality: The Roots and Results of Stratification in America's School. New York: The Free Press, 1977.

Teacher Performance Evaluation (TPE)

Teacher performance evaluation is a process in which information derived from sources is used to arrive at a value judgment. It is rating of a teacher based upon an analysis or measurement of progress toward accomplishment of "predetermined objectives" (rules of the game). This process looks at how teachers behave and determines progress toward improvements of instruction. Most evaluations employ a cycle which includes a pre-conference, data collection, a summative conference for the discussion of a rating based on pre-established criteria in a checklist form, and follow-up.

1. Good, Thomas L., and Brophy, Jere E. Looking into Classrooms. New York: Harper & Row, pp. 394-397.

2. Manatt, Richard P. Evaluating and Improving Teacher Performance "Workbook".

3. Wittrock, Merlin (Ed.). Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd edition. "School Effects" by Thomas L. Good and June E. Brophy, p. 585.

Teaching to an Objective

"Use of objective as a basis for teaching and measurement." "All instruction is designed to accomplish certain objectives. Some teachers' objectives are vague and implicit, but teaching and the accompanying evaluation are easier for both teachers and students if the instructional objectives are definitely specified and clearly and openly understood."

1. Hudgins, B. B. et al. (1983). Educational Psychology. Itasca, Illinois: Peacock Publishers, Inc., p. 549.

2. Eggen, Paul D.; Kauchak, Donald P.; and Harder, Robert J. (1979). Strategies for Teachers. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., p. 61.

Timelining

Timelining is a term that means the process of planning in detail what is to be taught and when and how it will be taught. Timelining would include the planning of a variety of activities for all levels of learners, planning routine procedures and planning for interaction during a particular unit or lesson. In short, timelining is the listing of activities to be used and concepts to be taught and the time given to each.

The term timelining is also connected with the teacher evaluation activity of capturing data during observation. Timelining in this form is writing down activities, concepts and what the teacher is saying at prescribed time intervals during the observation period.

1. Manatt, Richard. Lecture during class, Educational Administration 557. Lectures given during October and November, 1986.

2. Roueche, John F., and Baker, George A. Profiling Excellence in America's Schools. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1986.

3. Rosenberg, Micheal S., and Baker, Kelly. "Instructional time and the teacher-educator: Training pre-service and beginning teachers to use instructional time effectively." The Teacher Educator, 2(4) (Spring 1985).

Time Management

Time management is a term referring to the process of organizing tasks educators feel are really essential in order to maximize Academic Learning Time. We can increase A.L.T. by: (1) Rewarding punctuality--valuable time is lost by having to repeat for tardy students; (2) minimize colleague interruptions; (3) program for disruption free transitions; and 4) devoting more time to academic activities--cutting down on time spent on non-essential discussions, attendance taking, etc.

1. Oliva, Peter F. Supervision for Today's Schools. New York and London: Longman, Inc., 1984.

2. Rosenberg, Micheal S., and Baker, Kelly. "Instructional time and the teacher-educator: Training pre-service and beginning teachers to use instructional time effectively." The Teacher Educator, 2(4) (Spring 1985).

Touching

Touching of students by teachers is an effective social reinforcer when a teacher can make his/her physical nearness and touch a reward to a student (Dollar, 1972). Ashton-Warner (1972) suggested touching is often used to communicate a teacher's approval of a student's seat work. This can be done by a hand on the arm, on the shoulder, or around the shoulders.

1. Dollar, B. (1972). Humanizing Classroom Behavior and a Behavioral Approach. New York: Harper & Row.

2. Ashton-Warner, S. (1972). Spearpoints, "Teacher" in America. New York: Vintage Books.

Types of Questions

According to Benjamin S. Bloom, there are six categories of questions at various cognitive levels:

A. Knowledge questions--These questions inquire whether learners understand specific terms or facts.
B. Comprehension questions--Questions at this level ask students to translate or paraphrase a communication from one form to another.

C. Application questions--Application questions are concerned with engaging students in applying successfully some understanding or technique to a problem situation.

D. Analysis questions--Analysis questions require students to diagnose materials, situations or environments and to separate them into three component parts.

E. Synthesis questions--These questions ask individuals to produce something unique to them--production of a unique communication. Students will be asked to organize the information to produce a product foreign to them.

F. Evaluation questions--Questions of evaluation request students to analyze data or conclusions from standpoints such as logical accuracy, consistency and other internal criteria.

1. Bloom, Benjamin S. "Taxonomy of educational objectives." Handbook 1: The Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Co., 1956, pp. 211-307.

2. "Levels of questioning: An alternative view." Reading Research Quarterly, (February 1985), pp. 586-602.

3. Hargreaves, D. H. "Teachers' questions: Open, closed and half opened." Educational Research, (February 1984), pp. 46-51.

Use of Student Ideas

For students to be involved in making plans for learning, indicating what questions he or she will ask and outlining possible directions for future inquiries. All of this implies that the student has shifted from being rather passive--reading the book and answering the end-of-the-chapter questions. The student role is one of a person totally involved in asking questions about data, about situations encountered in school situations, simulated situations, actual situations. The learner role is also that of a person involved in critiquing the questions he has raised, the procedures he has employed, and the sources he has checked, as well as the questions and procedures of others.

1. Cooper, C. R., and Anderson, W. A. "How to increase classroom participation." Instructional Innovator, (January 1984), pp. 49-51.

2. "Effects of teacher-directed versus student-directed instruction." Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, (Summer 1985), pp. 167-171.

3. "Helping Students Ask their Own Questions." Social Education, (April 1985), pp. 293-296.

Valid Evaluation

Valid evaluation occurs when a rating instrument measures what it purports to measure; this evaluation must parallel the content of the teacher's instructional objectives. Does it accurately judge what it is supposed to judge? (Good teaching) Making sure that evaluations are indeed valid is one of the main goals of Dr. Dick Manatt as expressed in the Evaluating and Improving Teacher Performance Workbook.

1. Manatt, Richard P. Evaluating and Improving Teacher Performance "Workbook".

2. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley B. Clinical Manual for Teachers Performance Evaluation. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Ames, Iowa, 1984.

3. Stodola, Quintin, and Stordahl, Kalmer. Basic Educational Tests and Measurements. Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates, Inc., pp. 140-141.

Wait Time

Wait time is the term researchers use to describe the pauses after asking a question of students. The typical teacher waits less than a second. If teachers can learn to increase their average wait time to three seconds or more, students' use of language and logic will improve. Students' and teachers' attitudes and expectations will also likely improve. Wait time is broken into two phases: wait time I and wait time II. Wait time I, teacher pauses between question and pupil responses (teacher-student). Wait time II, teacher pauses between pupils' responses and teachers' reaction to the responses (student-teacher).

1. Rowe, M. B. "Relation of wait-time and rewards to the development of language, logic, and fate control: Part II-Rewards." Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 11 (1974), pp. 291-308.

2. Borg, W. R. "The mini course as a vehicle for changing behavior." The Research Evidence. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1969.

3. Kerman, S.; Martin, M.; and Kimball, T. Teacher expectations and student achievement coordinator manual. Bloomington, Indiana. Phi Delta Kappa, 1980.

With-it-ness

With-it-ness is the criterion of setting high standards for student behavior calls to mind that high-gain teaching is a complex and demanding task, requiring almost constant decision-making. When this decision-making is centered on management of behavior and a teacher does it well, the teacher is said to have "with-it-ness." "With-it-ness" calls for reinforcing proper behavior as well as spotting behavior which deviates from the expectations. The term is also defined as the high-gain teacher scans the classroom and knows what is going on. The message is clear, "I am with-it," i.e., aware of what is going on, and sure to detect in appropriate behavior early and accurately--"the problem-nipper."

1. Manatt, Richard P., and Stow, Shirley. Clinical Manual for Teacher Performance Evaluation. Iowa State University Research Foundation, Ames, Iowa, 1984.

Working the "T"

Students who are most likely to be asked questions or to participate in discussions are seated in a T-shaped area with the top of the T at the center front of the room and the stem of the T forming the middle section of a classroom (Adams and Biddle, 1970). Kerman and Martin (1980) contended that students perceived as low achievers are usually clustered in (a) a rear corner of the room, (b) in the back seats of each row, or (c) in a group to the side of the room, at the farthest point possible from the teacher's usual location in the room.

1. Adams, R., and Biddle, B. (1970). Realities of Teaching: Explorations with Videotape. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

2. Kerman, S., and Martin, M. (1980). Teacher expectations and student achievement. Bloomington, Indiana. Phi Delta Kappa.

Index of Terms

A

Academic Learning Time, 1
Academically Focused, 1
Accepting Feelings, 2
Active Listening, 2
Active Participation, 3
Adjustment, 3
Advance Organizer, 4
Affirm and Correct Student's Performance, 4
Analysis, 5
Application, 5
Aptitude/Treatment/ Interaction Research, 6

B

Behavior Modification, 6
Bird Walking, 7
Bloom's Taxonomy, 7

C

Check for Understanding, 8
Classroom Management, 8
Coaching, 9
Comprehension, 9
Concept, 10
Context of Learning, 10
Contingent Reinforcement, 11
Congruent, 11
Cooperative Team Learning, 12
Corrective, 12
The "Correlates", 13
Courtesy, 13
Covert Behavior, 14
Criticism, 14
Cueing, 14

D

Deadtime, 15
Desisting, 15
Deviancy Desist, 16
Diagnostic Survey, 16

E

Effective School, 17
Effective Teaching, 17
Encouragement, 18
Engaged Time, 18
Equitable Distribution of Response Opportunities, 19

F

Feedback, 19
Freedom from Deviancy, 20

G

Group Alerting, 20
Groups, 21
Guided Practice, 21

H

High Expectations, 22

I

Independent Practice, 22
Input, 23

K

Knowledge of Results, 24

L

Law of Least Intervention, 24

Level of Concern, 25
Level of Difficulty, 25
Listening, 25

M

MBWA - Managing By Walking Around, 26
Meaning, 26
Meaningful Processing, 27
Mental Set, 27
Modeling, 28
Monitoring Learning, 28
Monitoring Success Rate, 28

N

Negative Reinforcement, 29

O

Opportunity to Learn Criterion Material, 30
Overlapping, 30
Overlearning, 30
Overt Behavior, 31

P

Personal Interest/Compliments, 31
Positive Reinforcement, 32
Praise, 32
Praise of Learning Performance, 33
Presage Variables, 33
Pretest, 34
Preview, 34
Proactive Management, 35
Procedures/Directions, 35
Process/Product Research, 36
Process Variables, 36
Product Variables, 36
Proximity, 37

Q

Quality Time, 37
Questioning, 38

R

Reactive Management, 38
Reasons for Praise, 39
Research on Teaching, 39
Review, 40

S

Safe, Orderly Environment, 41
Script Taping, 41
Structuring Comment, 42
Student Accountability, 42
Synthesis, 43

T

Task Analysis, 43
Teacher Effect, 44
Teacher Expectations, 45
TPE-Teacher Performance Evaluation, 45
Teaching to an Objective, 46
Timelining, 46
Time Management, 47
Touching, 47
Types of Questions, 47

U

Use of Student Ideas, 48

V

Valid Evaluation, 49

W

Wait Time, 49
With-it-ness, 50
Working the "T", 50